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Parent-Adolescent Trust and Parent-Adolescent Relationship in Chinese Families in Hong Kong:
Implications for Parent Education and Family Therapy

Daniel T.L. Shek

Department of Applied Social Sciences

The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

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Requests for reprints should be sent to Daniel T.L. Shek, Department of Applied Social sciences, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hunghom, Kowloon, Hong Kong (e-mail address: daniel.shek@polyu.edu.hk).

Abstract

On two occasions separated by one year, Chinese adolescents (N=2,758) responded to instruments measuring their perceived parent-adolescent trust (i.e., paternal trust of the child and the child's trust of the parent) and other dimensions of parent-child relational qualities (satisfaction with parental control, readiness to communicate with the parent, and global satisfaction with the parent-child relationship). Results showed that perceived parent-adolescent trust was concurrently and longitudinally related to other dimensions of parent-child relational qualities. Multiple regression analyses suggest that the relations between perceived parent-adolescent trust and different dimensions of parent-child relational qualities over time were bidirectional in nature. Relative to perceived paternal trust of the adolescent child, adolescent child's trust of their parents exerted a stronger influence on different dimensions of parent-adolescent relational qualities, particularly in the father-adolescent dyad. While the influence of the child's readiness to communicate with the parents on parent-adolescent trust was weak in the father-adolescent dyad, the influence of global satisfaction with the parent-adolescent relationship on parent-adolescent trust was weak in the mother-adolescent dyad. The implications of the present findings on parent education and family therapy are discussed.

Keywords: Chinese adolescents, parental-adolescent trust, satisfaction with parental control, parent-adolescent communication, parent-adolescent relationship

Parent-Adolescent Trust and Parent-Adolescent Relationship in Chinese Families in Hong Kong: Implications for Parent Education and Family Therapy

The quality of parent-adolescent relationship is an important developmental context for an adolescent (e.g., Shek, 1999) and different aspects of the construct have been identified (e.g., Furman & Buhrmester, 1985; Matza, Kupersmidt & Glenn, 2001). In the area of parental control, Shek (2005, 2006b) pointed out that there are three neglected dimensions of parent-child relationship in the literature. These dimensions include mutual trust between the parents and adolescent children, the readiness of the child to communicate with the parents, and satisfaction with parental control. Shek (2006b) also suggested that global satisfaction with the parent-child relationship is an important dimension to be considered in parental control research.

Regarding trust between the parent and their adolescent child, there are views arguing that it was inadequately studied in the literature (Noack, Kerr & Olah, 1999; Rotenberg, 1995). Kerr, Stattin and Trost (1999) explicitly pointed out that “little is known about what contributes to or interferes with parents’ abilities to trust their adolescents or what parents-child relationships are like if trust is lacking” (p.737). Concerning the child’s satisfaction with parental control, as adolescents strive for independence, parental control is usually met with strong resistance from adolescent children. Therefore, the child’s perceived satisfaction with parental control is a good indicator of the relationship between the parent and the adolescent child. Finally, according to Kerr, Stattin and Trost (1999), the child’s voluntary disclosure (i.e., readiness to communicate with the parents) is an important determinant of the global parent-adolescent relationship.

According to the theoretical propositions of the attachment theories (e.g., Bailham & Harper, 2004; Bowlby, 1988; Goldberg, Muir & Kerr, 1995) and attachment-based family therapies (Diamond & Stern, 2003), it was expected that a higher level of the child’s trust (which symbolizes higher sense of security) would contribute to better parent-child relational qualities. However, a basic question that should be considered is whether parental trust of the child and child’s trust of the parents equally contribute to different dimensions of the parent-adolescent relationship. While parental trust of the child represents recognition of the child’s behavior which may promote parent-adolescent relational

quality, it is not adequately addressed in the literature. On the other hand, child's trust of the parents is central to the propositions of attachment-based family therapy theories. As such, it was expected that perceived trust of the parents would be more important than perceived parental trust of the child in determining parent-adolescent relational qualities.

There are two additional issues that should be considered. First, besides examining parent-adolescent trust as an antecedent of other dimensions of the parent-adolescent relationship, it would be equally important to ask how different dimensions of the parent-adolescent relationship contribute to parent-adolescent trust. For example, there are research findings showing that as the child's readiness to communicate increases, parental knowledge would also increase (e.g., Kerr & Stattin, 2000; Kerr, Stattin & Trost, 1999). Second, with reference to the findings showing that father-adolescent communication was weak (Shek, 2005) and that father-adolescent relational qualities were perceived to be poorer than mother-adolescent relational qualities in Chinese families (Shek, 2000, 2005), it was argued that as compared to mother-adolescent trust, the child's readiness to communicate with the father may not be a strong predictor of father-adolescent trust in the Chinese context.

Three research questions are addressed in this paper. 1) What are the concurrent and longitudinal relationships between mutual trust between the parents and their children and different dimensions of the parent-child relationship (satisfaction with parental control, the child's readiness to communicate with the parent, and global parent-adolescent relationship)? Based on the literature, it was expected that the relationships between these two domains would be bidirectional in nature. 2) What is the relative contribution of parental trust of the child and child's trust of the parent to parent-child relational qualities? Based on the preceding discussion, it was predicted that perceived trust of the parent would be more important than perceived parental trust, particularly for the father-adolescent dyad. 3) What is the contribution of different dimensions of parent-child relational qualities to parent-adolescent trust? Based on the above discussion, it would be expected that the role played by readiness of the child to communicate with the parents may not be a strong factor determining trust in the father-adolescent dyad in the Chinese culture.

Method

Participants and Procedures

The data for the present analyses are derived from the Wave 1 and Wave 2 data of a longitudinal study of parental control in Hong Kong. At Time 1, 3,017 Chinese secondary school students (1,331 boys and 1,670 girls and 16 respondents not indicating their gender) participated in the study. They were all Secondary 1 students (age range=11 years to 19 years; mean age=12.65 years, $SD = 0.88$) recruited from 16 randomly selected schools in Hong Kong. The second assessment (Time 2) occurred one year after the first assessment (Time 1) where the students responded to the same questionnaire used at Time 1. Follow-up data could be obtained from 2,758 students at Time 2 (1,204 boys and 1,544 girls, with 10 participants not indicating their gender). This group of students, from whom the Time 1 and Time 2 data were collected, constituted the longitudinal sample for the study.

At each wave of data collection, the purpose of the study was mentioned, and the confidentiality of the data collected was repeatedly emphasized to all of the students in attendance on the day of testing. Both parental consent (via the school authority) and participant consent were obtained. All participants responded en masse to all the instrument scales in the questionnaire in a self-administration format.

Instruments

Paternal Trust of Children Scale (PTRU) and Maternal Trust of Children Scale (MTRU). Five items were used to assess the respondents' perceptions of their fathers' trust in them (PTRU: $\alpha=.81$ and $.83$ at Time 1 and Time 2, respectively). Identical items with reference to "my mother" formed the Maternal Trust of Children Scale ($\alpha=.81$ and $.81$ at Time 1 and Time 2, respectively). A higher total score of the items in each scale indicates a higher level of perceived parental trust.

Children's Trust of Father Scale (TRUF) and Children's Trust of Mother Scale (TRUM). Five items were used to assess the respondents' trust of their fathers (TRUF: $\alpha=.77$ and $.79$ at Time 1 and Time 2, respectively). Identical items with reference to "my mother" formed the Children's Trust of Mother Scale ($\alpha=.75$ and $.77$ at Time 1 and Time 2, respectively). A higher total score of the

items in each scale indicates a higher level of trust.

Satisfaction with Paternal Control Scale (SATF) and Satisfaction with Maternal Control Scale (SATM). Four items were developed to assess the child's satisfaction with parental control (SATF: $\alpha=.79$ and $.81$, respectively). Identical items with reference to "my mother" were used to form the Satisfaction with Maternal Control Scale ($\alpha=.79$ and $.80$ at Time 1 and Time 2, respectively). A higher total score of the items in each scale reflects a higher level of satisfaction.

Readiness to Communicate with the Father Scale (RCF) and Readiness to Communicate with the Mother Scale (RCM). Two items were used to assess the respondents' readiness to communicate with the father (RCF: $\alpha=.90$ and $.93$, respectively). Identical items with reference to "my mother" formed the Readiness to Communicate with the Mother Scale ($\alpha=.91$ and $.93$ at Time 1 and Time 2, respectively). The higher level of the total score of the items in each scale indicates a higher level of readiness to communicate with the parent.

Perceived Global Satisfaction with the Father-Adolescent Relationship (FAR) and Perceived Global Satisfaction with the Mother-Adolescent Relationship (MAR). One item was used to assess the perceived global father-adolescent relationship or mother-adolescent relationship. The item score was used as an indicator of the perceived global parent-adolescent relationship such that a higher score indicates a higher level of global satisfaction with the parent-adolescent relationship.

Results

Concurrent correlations at Time 1 and Time 2. Bonferroni-corrected correlation coefficients ((Larzelere & Mulaik, 1977) on the linkages between measures of parent -adolescent trust and different measures of parent-adolescent relationship are presented in Table 1 and Table 2. The findings in both tables revealed that those who perceived higher parent-adolescent trust had higher levels of parent-adolescent relational qualities.

Time 1 to Time 2 longitudinal correlations. The data in Table 1 and Table 2 revealed that those who perceived parent-adolescent trust to be stronger at Time 1 had better parent-adolescent relational qualities at Time 2. Results also showed that parent-adolescent relational qualities at Time 1 were related to perceived parent-adolescent trust at Time 2.

Time 1 to Time 2 prospective analyses. Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were performed to assess the causal relationships between parent-adolescent trust at Time 1 and different measures of parent-adolescent relational qualities at Time 2. The findings in Table 3 show that while both perceived parental trust and trust of the parents were related to parent-adolescent relational qualities, perceived parent-adolescent trust was generally a stronger predictor of different dimensions of the parent-adolescent relationship, with the differences to be more pronounced in the father-adolescent dyad than in the mother-adolescent dyad.

Regarding the influence of different dimensions of parent-adolescent relational qualities on parent-adolescent trust, findings in Table 4 showed that the child's satisfaction with parental control at Time 1 predicted changes in parent-adolescent trust at Time 2. Concerning the child's readiness to communicate with the parents, results showed that it did not predict parent-adolescent trust in the father-adolescent dyad. In fact, relative to the influence of readiness of the child to communicate with the father on father-adolescent trust, the readiness of the child to communicate with the mother was a stronger predictor of perceived trust of the mother in the total sample ($t=-4.30$, $p < .001$), male sample ($t=-2.89$, $p < .01$) and female sample ($t=-3.58$, $p < .01$). In contrast, it was found that while global satisfaction with the parent-adolescent relationship predicted father-adolescent trust, it did not predict mother-adolescent trust over time.

DISCUSSION

With reference to the first research question, concurrent and longitudinal correlation analyses suggest that parent-adolescent trust was related to different dimensions of the parent-adolescent relationship measures at Time 1 and Time 2 as well as across time (Table 1 and Table 2). For the second research question, the present findings showed that while both perceived trust of the parents and parental trust of the children generally predicted different dimensions of parent-adolescent relational qualities, the differences between them appeared to be greater in the father-adolescent dyad (Table 3).

For the final research question, the child's perceived satisfaction with parental control generally predicted changes in parent-adolescent trust. However, for the child's readiness to

communicate with the parents, it appeared that their effects were different in the father-adolescent dyad and mother-adolescent dyad. While it was not significantly related to father-adolescent trust, it significantly predicted mother-adolescent trust. This finding is consistent with the original expectation that because father-adolescent communication was weak in the Chinese families, its role was comparatively weaker than that of the mother-adolescent dyad. This observation is not consistently with the findings reported previously (Kerr & Stattin, 2000). Furthermore, an unexpected finding is that while global father-adolescent relationship significantly predicted father-adolescent trust, global mother-adolescent relationship did not predict mother-adolescent trust.

In view of the paucity of research on psychological control, the present findings can be regarded as pioneering, particularly in the Chinese culture. Nevertheless, there are two limitations of this study. First, because the assessment of parent-child relational qualities was based on self-report measures from the perspective of the child, the inclusion of observational data in real life settings based on the "outsiders" and inclusion of informants from different perspectives would give a more accurate assessment of the related processes is concerned. Second, because the sample was recruited from Chinese adolescents in Hong Kong, there is a need to replicate the findings in different cultural contexts.

Applications of the Findings to Family Theories As Well As Family Counseling and Therapy

There are several contributions of the present findings to family therapy and family counseling. As commented by Moretti and Holland (2003), the study of attachment and parent-child relationships has been dominated by researches in childhood and "in contrast to these areas of investigation, the developmental period of adolescence has been relatively ignored by attachment researchers" (p.234). Therefore, the present study provides some building blocks for theorists in the field of family therapy to construct the related models, particularly attachment-based family therapy models (e.g., Diamond & Stern, 2003). It is noteworthy that in the field of family therapy, there are increasing emphasis on the importance of attachment processes and relationship issues in couple and family therapy (Erdman & Caffery, 2003; Johnson & Whiffen, 2003).

The present findings provide some building blocks for the formulation of family and family

therapy theories. First, the reciprocal nature of the relationships between the domain of trust and the domain of parent-adolescent relationship suggests that intervention at either end may be possible. Second, the finding that perceived trust of the parents by adolescent children is more important than perceived parental trust of their children in influencing the parent-adolescent relationship has obvious treatment implication. Third, the present findings suggest that the role of the child's readiness to communicate with the parents and the global parent-adolescent relationship in the cultivation of parent-adolescent trust might be different in the father-adolescent dyad and mother-adolescent dyad. According to Shek (2006a), there is a strong need to examine the validity of Western theories in the Chinese contexts and indigenous family theories and family therapy models should be built. In particular, it would be important for family therapists to appreciate the mode of communication in Chinese parents and their adolescent children (Shek, Lee, Lee & Lam, 2006). With reference to the request proposed by Johnson (2003) that "couple and family therapists need a broad integrative theory of relationships, one that captures the essence of the nature of our bonds of love, if we are to understand, predict and explain such relationships and so know how to change them for the better" (p, 3), the present study is a constructive response.

Second, the present findings suggest that parent-adolescent trust is important for the development of the parent-adolescent relationship. While trust is generally emphasized in the humanistic and existential perspectives, its role in the behavioral and cognitive-behavioral oriented family intervention theories is less emphasized. The present findings suggest that besides promoting communication and interaction skills in the parent-adolescent dyad (e.g., behavioral family theories, Robin & Foster, 1989), cultivation of parent-adolescent trust is also important in promoting parent-child relational qualities. There are two levels of intervention where parent-adolescent trust could be promoted. The first level is on parent education programs that are commonly used by family counselors and family education workers. Shek and Lee (2006) pointed out that while parent education program such as the Systematic Training of Effective Parenting (Dinkmeyer, McKay, McKay & Dinkmeyer, 1998) has been widely used to help parents in the Western context, such programs should be modified in non-Western cultures. As such, they proposed a modified Chinese

program in parent education modeling after the STEP program in which Chinese cultural elements are incorporated. Based on the present findings, it is further recommended that the issue of trust should be addressed in the program, particularly for those cases where parent-adolescent conflict is present and parent-adolescent relationship is not satisfactory. Specifically, the following sessions should be added:

◆ Session on understanding parent-adolescent trust from the perspective of the adolescent child:

The worker should help the participants to reflect upon: a) cultural beliefs regarding child's trust of the parents (e.g., children should have unconditional trust of the parents); b) factors affecting children's trust about their parents; c) the parent's assessment of children's trust about them; and d) the ways they have used to promote the child's trust of the parents and their effectiveness.

Experiential learning exercises via small group format would be the best means to carry out the above tasks. In particular, parents should also be encouraged to write letters to their adolescent children regarding this topic.

◆ Session on understanding parent-adolescent trust from the perspective of the parent: The worker should help the participants to reflect upon: a) cultural beliefs regarding parents' trust of the child (e.g., children must be monitored because they are intrinsically naughty); b) factors influencing parents' trust of their children; c) parents' assessment of their trust of adolescent children; and d) the ways the parents have used to promote their trust of their children and their effectiveness. Experiential learning exercises via small group format would be the best means to carry out the above tasks. In particular, adolescent children should also be encouraged to write letters to their parents regarding this topic.

◆ Session on understanding discrepancies in parent-adolescent trust from the perspective of the adolescent child and the parent: The worker should help the participants to reflect upon: a) discrepancies of views between parents and their adolescent children in adolescence, including parent-adolescent trust; b) individual and cultural meanings of discrepancies in the perception of parent-adolescent trust; c) factors influencing discrepancies in parents' and adolescents' perceptions of parent-adolescent trust; d) possible ways to reduce discrepancies in parent-adolescent trust between parents and their adolescent children. Experiential learning

exercises such as role plays would be the best means to carry out the above tasks.

- ◆ Session on promoting parent-adolescent trust (particularly child's trust of the parents): The worker should help the participants to reflect upon: a) the role of global parent-child relationship, readiness to communicate with the parents, and child's satisfaction with parental control in parent-adolescent trust; b) possible parental differences involved and the related gender issues; c) uniqueness of Chinese emotions; and d) ways to promote adolescent children's satisfaction with parental control. Experiential learning exercises would be the best means to carry out the above tasks. Techniques such as reflective listening, "I" messages and therapeutic letters would be introduced and practiced.

The second level of application of the present findings to family practice is in the context of family therapy, particularly for those cases where parent-adolescent conflict is very intense and parent-adolescent relationship is very poor. A survey of the literature shows that different models have been proposed to focus on the quality of relationship between the parents and their adolescent children (e.g., Schofield & Brown, 1999). Diamond and Stern (2003) proposed that there are five steps in attachment-based family therapy (ABFT), including a) relational reframe (help the family to define family relationship and building trust among the family members), b) alliance building with adolescent (building closer bonds, developing meaningful intervention goals, identifying core family conflicts that have damaged parent-adolescent trust, and preparing the adolescent for the later stages in the therapy), c) alliance building with the parent (identifying major life stressors, exploring family-of-origin issues in the parents, and preparing the parent for the later stages in the therapy), d) repairing attachment (adolescent disclosure, parent disclosure and apology, and mutual dialogue) and e) competency building (development of a new sense of mutual trust).

Based on the present research findings, several treatment implications are noteworthy with reference to the treatment tasks in the ABFT. First, in the relational reframe stage, clients are helped to appreciate the importance of mutual trust between the parents and adolescent children and to reflect upon the individual and cultural beliefs about parent-adolescent trust. Second, in the alliance building with the adolescent stage, the adolescent client's trust of the parents and the impeding factor should be

assessed. In addition, the child's view of parental control and readiness to communicate with the parents should be examined. Third, in the alliance building with the parent stage, the parent's trust of their adolescent children and the impeding factor should be evaluated. In addition, the parent's perceptions of and explanations for the child's satisfaction with parental control and readiness to communicate with the parents should be examined. Fourth, in the attachment-repairing task, focus on parent-adolescent trust according to the versions of the child and the parent and the related discrepancies would be important. The related vulnerable and negative emotions should also be dealt with. The therapist should also promote experiences that would form the foundation of later parent-adolescent trust. Finally, in the competence building stage, the family members should be helped to appreciate the relatively higher importance of child's trust of the parents relative to the trust of the child by the parent in determining the parent-adolescent relationship in the father-adolescent dyad. They should also be helped to appreciate parental differences in the role of readiness to communicate with the parents and global parent-adolescent relationship in the cultivation of parent-adolescent trust.

In her discussion of the treatment implications of adolescent attachment and relationship issues, Mackey (2003) suggested that family therapists should explore the following issues: a) detailed history and the problem of interventions; b) detailed developmental history of the child; c) parental attachment histories; and d) establishment of mutual goals, form and framework of treatment. Sable (1992) pointed out that five general goals of treatment are intrinsic to therapy anchored around attachment and relationship issues. The first treatment goal is to provide a secure base for the clients so that they could explore different domains of their lives. The second treatment goal is to encourage the clients to explore their relationships with the significant-others in their lives. The third treatment goal is to encourage the client to examine the worker-client relationship. The fourth treatment goal is to encourage clients to reflect on how their current expectations and views are shaped by their socialization process and interactions with the attachment figures. The final treatment goal is to invite the clients to recognize that their mode of behavior may not be appropriate to the present demand and there is a possibility of change.

With reference to the above general goals of treatment, the present research findings have the following implications, particularly for cases where there is intense parent-adolescent conflict and the parent-adolescent relationship is turbulent. For the second treatment goal, clients should be encouraged to explore the contribution of the parent-adolescent relationship, child's satisfaction with parental control, and readiness to communicate with the parents to parent-adolescent trust. For the fourth treatment goal, the clients are encouraged to reflect on how the Chinese cultural beliefs on parent-adolescent relationship have contributed to the development of their own parent-adolescent trust. In addition, adolescent clients are helped to understand how trust has affected their relationship with the parents. For the final treatment goal, clients are helped to understand that parent-adolescent trust could be changed, with father-adolescent trust more susceptible to global relational qualities whereas mother-adolescent trust more influenced by the child's readiness to communicate with the mothers. In particular, family therapists should realize that in contrast to the Western findings (Kerr & Stattin, 2000), readiness of the child to communicate with the father may not necessarily promote the development of father-adolescent trust. Instead, global father-adolescent relationship plays a more important role in the enhancement of parent-adolescent trust. As such, the use of activities nurturing the quality of the father-adolescent relationship may be more important. For example, emphases on more paternal involvement in the child's activities and maintenance of a harmonious father-adolescent relationship are relevant intervention foci.

In short, family therapists working with Chinese families should be sensitive to the predictors of parent-adolescent trust and the mutual relationships between trust and parent-child relational qualities reported in this study. In particular, the present findings suggest that the role of the child's readiness to communicate with the parents and global parent-adolescent relationship play different roles in influencing parent-adolescent trust in the father-adolescent and mother-adolescent dyads in the Chinese family contexts. Obviously, the translation of the present findings to family practice in the areas of parent education program and attachment based family therapy offer exciting treatment and intervention possibilities, particularly with reference to Chinese families.

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Table 1

Concurrent and longitudinal correlation coefficients on the linkages between father-adolescent trust and different dimensions of father-adolescent relational qualities in different samples

		Time 1			Time 2		
		SATF	RCF	FAR	SATF	RCF	FAR
Total Sample							
Time 1	PTRU	.55*	.46*	.50*	.42*	.35*	.36*
Time 1	TRUF	.68*	.54*	.60*	.55*	.42*	.46*
Time 2	PTRU	.44*	.37*	.40*	.59*	.48*	.54*
Time 2	TRUF	.52*	.40*	.48*	.72*	.56*	.63*
Male Sample							
Time 1	PTRU	.53*	.40*	.45*	.43*	.29*	.34*
Time 1	TRUF	.65*	.48*	.53*	.56*	.40*	.44*
Time 2	PTRU	.45*	.35*	.40*	.62*	.45*	.56*
Time 2	TRUF	.53*	.37*	.45*	.72*	.52*	.60*
Female Sample							
Time 1	PTRU	.56*	.50*	.53*	.41*	.37*	.37*
Time 1	TRUF	.69*	.59*	.65*	.54*	.44*	.47*
Time 2	PTRU	.43*	.38*	.40*	.58*	.49*	.54*
Time 2	TRUF	.51*	.43*	.50*	.72*	.59*	.65*

Note. PTRU: Paternal Trust of Children Scale. TRUF: Children's Trust of Father Scale. SATF: Satisfaction with Paternal Control Scale. RCF: Readiness to Communicate with Father Scale. FAR: Perceived Global Satisfaction with the Father-Adolescent Relationship. A two-tailed multistage Bonferroni procedure was used to obtain the findings related to all the correlations in each sample. p_{FW} is based on the familywise Type 1 error rate. p_T is the Type 1 error rate per test.

* $p_{FW} < .01$; $p_T < .0004$

Table 2

Concurrent and longitudinal correlation coefficients on the linkages between mother-adolescent trust and different dimensions of mother-adolescent relational qualities in different samples

		SATM	Time 1 RCM	MAR	SATM	Time 2 RCM	MAR
Total Sample							
Time 1	MTRU	.56*	.47*	.52*	.41*	.34*	.37*
Time 1	TRUM	.67*	.54*	.60*	.48*	.37*	.42*
Time 2	MTRU	.38*	.35*	.37*	.58*	.47*	.52*
Time 2	TRUM	.46*	.42*	.42*	.70*	.54*	.61*
Male Sample							
Time 1	MTRU	.53*	.42*	.48*	.38*	.30*	.33*
Time 1	TRUM	.65*	.47*	.52*	.44*	.35*	.39*
Time 2	MTRU	.38*	.33*	.31*	.54*	.42*	.47*
Time 2	TRUM	.44*	.38*	.37*	.65*	.48*	.59*
Female Sample							
Time 1	MTRU	.58*	.50*	.55*	.44*	.37*	.39*
Time 1	TRUM	.68*	.60*	.66*	.51*	.39*	.44*
Time 2	MTRU	.38*	.37*	.41*	.60*	.51*	.56*
Time 2	TRUM	.47*	.45*	.45*	.73*	.60*	.64*

Note. MTRU: Maternal Trust of Children Scale. TRUM: Children's Trust of Mother Scale. SATM: Satisfaction with Maternal Control Scale. RCM: Readiness to Communicate with Mother Scale. MAR: Perceived Global Satisfaction with the Mother-Adolescent Relationship. A two-tailed multistage Bonferroni procedure was used to obtain the findings related to all the correlations in each sample. p_{FW} is based on the familywise Type 1 error rate. p_T is the Type 1 error rate per test.

* $p_{FW} < .01$; $p_T < .0004$

Table 3

Time 1 parent-adolescent trust measures predicting changes in Time 2 parent-adolescent relational qualities measures (with the effect of the Time 1 dependent variable on Time 2 dependent variable removed at Step 1)

				Standardized Betas	
		$\triangle R^2$ (Step 1)	$\triangle R^2$ (Step 2)	Parental Trust	Trust in Parents
Total Sample					
Time 2	SATF	.35c	.04c	.07b (.07)	.25c (.22) #
Time 2	RCF	.28c	.03c	.06b (.06)	.16c (.14) #
Time 2	FAR	.29c	.03c	.05a (.05)	.18c (.16) #
Male Sample					
Time 2	SATF	.35c	.06c	.10b (.10)	.26c (.24) #
Time 2	RCF	.24c	.03c	.04n (.03)	.19c (.17) #
Time 2	FAR	.24c	.04c	.07n (.06)	.21c (.19) #
Female Sample					
Time 2	SATF	.35c	.03c	.04n (.04)	.24c (.20) #
Time 2	RCF	.31c	.02c	.07b (.07)	.14c (.12) #
Time 2	FAR	.33c	.02c	.03n (.03)	.16c (.14) #
Total Sample					
Time 2	SATM	.27c	.04c	.11c (.10)	.20c (.16) #
Time 2	RCM	.28c	.02c	.09c (.08)	.08c (.07)
Time 2	MAR	.21c	.04c	.11c (.10)	.18c (.15) #
Male Sample					
Time 2	SATM	.22c	.04c	.13c (.11)	.19c (.15)
Time 2	RCM	.25c	.02c	.05n (.05)	.12c (.11)
Time 2	MAR	.17c	.05c	.10b (.09)	.20c (.17) #
Female Sample					
Time 2	SATM	.30c	.04c	.11c (.10)	.21c (.17) #
Time 2	RCM	.29c	.01c	.10c (.09)	.05n (.05)@
Time 2	MAR	.24c	.03c	.12c (.10)	.15c (.12)

Note. Parental Trust: PTRU or MTRU. SATF: Satisfaction with Paternal Control Scale. RCF: Readiness to Communicate with Father Scale. FAR: Perceived Global Satisfaction with the Father-Adolescent Relationship. Trust in parents: TRUF or TRUM. SATM: Satisfaction with Maternal Control Scale. RCM: Readiness to Communicate with Mother Scale. MAR: Perceived Global Satisfaction with the Mother-Adolescent Relationship. Partial correlation coefficients are in parentheses.

Perceived trust of the parent had a significantly stronger effect on the DV than did perceived parental trust of the child ($p < .05$).

@ Perceived parental trust of the child had a significantly stronger effect on the DV than did perceived trust of the child ($p < .05$).

a $p < .001$; b $p < .01$; c $p < .05$; n non-significant

Table 4

Effect of Time 1 parent-adolescent relational qualities on Time 2 parent-adolescent trust (with the effect of the Time 1 dependent variable on Time 2 dependent variable removed at Step 1)

				Standardized Beta		
		ΔR^2 (Step 1)	ΔR^2 (Step 2)	SATF	RCF	FAR
Total Sample						
Time 2	TRUF	.35c	.04c	.15c (.13)*	.02n (.02)	.13c (.12)*
Time 2	PTRU	.31c	.03c	.13c (.11)*	.05a (.05)	.08b (.07)
Male Sample						
Time 2	TRUF	.32c	.05c	.22c (.19)*	.02n (.02)	.12c (.11)*
Time 2	PTRU	.26c	.06c	.16c (.14)*	.06n (.05)	.13c (.11)*
Female Sample						
Time 2	TRUF	.37c	.02c	.10b (.08)*	.01n (.01)	.15c (.12)*
Time 2	PTRU	.33c	.02c	.11c (.09)*	.04n (.04)	.05n (.01)

				Standardized Beta		
		ΔR^2 (Step 1)	ΔR^2 (Step 2)	SATM	RCM	MAR
Total Sample						
Time 2	TRUM	.28c	.04c	.13c (.11)#	.14c (.12)#	.04n (.03)
Time 2	MTRU	.27c	.02c	.07b (.05)	.09c (.08)	.06a (.05)
Male Sample						
Time 2	TRUM	.25c	.04c	.14c (.11)#	.14c (.13)#	.03n (.03)
Time 2	MTRU	.26c	.03c	.13c (.11)#	.11c (.11)#	.01n (.01)
Female Sample						
Time 2	TRUM	.30c	.03c	.12c (.10)#	.14c (.12)#	.05n (.04)
Time 2	MTRU	.31c	.02c	.01n (.01)	.06a (.06)	.10b (.08)

Note. PTRU: Paternal Trust of Children Scale. TRUF: Children's Trust of Father Scale. SATF: Satisfaction with Paternal Control Scale. RCF: Readiness to Communicate with Father Scale. FAR: Perceived Global Satisfaction with the Father-Adolescent Relationship. MTRU: Maternal Trust of Children Scale. TRUM: Children's Trust of Mother Scale. SATM: Satisfaction with Maternal Control Scale. RCM: Readiness to Communicate with Mother Scale. MAR: Perceived Global Satisfaction with the Mother-Adolescent Relationship. Partial correlation coefficients are in parentheses.

* Satisfaction with parental control or global satisfaction with the parent-child relationship was significantly higher than the child's readiness to communicate with the parent in predicting the Time 2 parent-adolescent trust measures ($p < .05$).

Satisfaction with parental control or the child's readiness to communicate with the parent was significantly higher than the global satisfaction with the parent-child relationship in predicting the Time 2 parent-adolescent trust measures ($p < .05$).

a $p < .001$

b $p < .01$

c $p < .05$

n non-significant